

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1919, No. 21

EDUCATION IN GERMANY

By

I. L. KANDEL

[Advance Sheets from the Biennial Survey of Education, 1916-1918]



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1919

ADDITIONAL COPIES
OF THIS PUBLICATION MAY BE PROCURED FROM
THE SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS,
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON D.C.
AT
1 CENTS PER COPY
▼

EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

By I. L. KANDEL

CONTENTS.—General tendencies—Secondary education—Training of secondary school-teachers—Separation of church and State.

GENERAL TENDENCIES.

The development of education in Germany during the past two years must necessarily remain obscure until the sources of direct information are again opened up. From extracts and references here and there the educational situation does not appear to have been very happy, and, if reports such as the following may be trusted, the machinery so carefully built up seems to have failed at the crisis. Writing in the Vossische Zeitung of January 23, 1918, Dr. Paul Hildebrandt contrasts the early enthusiasm manifested by the German school children and their war activities with the situation at the beginning of the year (1918) :

The sixth-grade pupils of 1914 are now about to be promoted to the upper third. They have become accustomed to the war. Who can wonder, then, that now in the fourth year of war our children exhibit signs of change? Too many of the restraints have been removed which should shape their developments; the loosening of family ties, the father at the front, the mother employed away from home, and in the lower ranks of society doing the work of men; the relaxation of school discipline. Of the teachers of the Berlin public schools, for instance, two thirds have gone into the army. The remainder are over-worked. Dropping class periods, or combining classes together is the order of the day. In the higher schools half of the teachers are in the army. Furthermore, standards in the higher institutions of learning have gradually been lowered until the final examination has been pushed back fully two classes. All of these conditions have influenced our students and have weakened their persistence, since they see that they can attain a scholastic standing without effort that formerly demanded the severest application.

Young people follow the law of their nature. They are guided by the impressions of the moment and they can not permanently resist them. In addition, as time went on, especially in the case of students of higher institutions, and particularly in the towns, the hardship of inadequate nourishment appeared. It is the unanimous judgment of medical specialists that the children of the middle classes suffered most in this respect. General attention was attracted to the fact that the children were less sensitive to reproof, that they paid no more attention to threats, because the school authorities had directed that they should be treated with every leniency, and since promotions no longer represented any definite standard of accomplishment. This special consideration for the children was most obvious in the schools of the large cities. Was

not harvest work and the country vacation necessary to maintain the health of the coming generation, and was it not necessary for a great many to be set back in their studies so that they required repeated concessions to maintain their rank and thereby continually lower scholastic standards of their classes?

That spirit of voluntary service which at the beginning of the war revealed itself in its fairest aspect has now disappeared. Everywhere we hear lamentations over the increasing distaste shown for military services. Pupils collect articles now for the reward, not from patriotism, and the older pupils have their struggles. Shall they take advantage of the opportunity to leave school with a half-completed education, or shall they avoid placing themselves in a position where they will have to enlist for their country? What an unhappy indecision even for the best of them, those who really think about the matter.

Furthermore, in those ranks of society which are less influenced by tradition, discipline, and education, we find increasing violations of the law. At the first this manifested itself merely in an increase of theft. More recently it has taken a decided turn toward personal assaults. It is true, the latter are still negligible in proportion to the total number of juvenile offenses, but they are increasing every year. Already the number of violent crimes committed by youths in the city of Berlin is more than three times the number reported in 1914.

Thus, dark shadows are falling over the brilliant picture of 1914. Every disciplinary influence, every effort of the still fundamentally sound German nation must be exerted to oppose this tendency, and to lead the children back to the path of rectitude.

Another picture, but one also indicating the difficulties that attend the conduct of the schools, is given in the Leipziger Volkszeitung for February 8, 1918.

The Saxon minister of education recently drew attention in the Saxon Diet to the injurious effects produced by the war on the elementary schools of the Kingdom. In addition to the shortage of fuel, which last year frequently necessitated the closing of schools, and this year has required the removal and amalgamation of whole schools, the unsatisfactory health of the teachers has had an undesirable effect.

War conditions, according to the minister, have caused great emaciation and premature ageing, and have diminished the capacity for work (alike physical and intellectual) and the sharpness of the senses. This state of things is attributed not only to the food supply situation, but also to the increased difficulty and extent of the professional work falling upon teachers (only 8,905 elementary school teachers were at work in Saxony on 1st of October, 1917, as compared with 14,800 before the war), and to the large amount of auxiliary service imposed upon teachers in connection with war economic measures.

These accounts hardly seem to be in keeping with the eulogies heaped on the German school system during the first two years of the war in the daily press, in professional magazines and by the Government. It was then felt very universally that the elementary school, the training ground of the discipline and physical strength and comprehensive culture that characterize the German soldier, had triumphed signally over the illiterate Russians and Italians, as well as the decadent French and the treacherous English. It was the elemen-

tary schools that produced the patriotic, loyal, thorough soldier whom the consciousness of a good cause carried to victory. This unguarded flattery of the elementary schools and their teachers helped somewhat to give a new impetus to a movement to which attention had been redirected just before the war. At an educational conference which met at Kiel in June, 1914, and was attended by representatives of all branches of education, it was urged with much enthusiasm that on the basis of a national common school higher education be made accessible to as many classes in society as possible so that intelligence might be recruited wherever it was found. Opportunity for ability could best be furnished through the establishment of the Einheitsschule or common school system. The program also included the unification of all branches of the teaching profession with the further implication of a uniform system of training for all and equal access for all to the highest positions in the educational profession. The elimination of social and sectarian distinction is another plank in the platform for educational reorganization.

The idea of the Einheitsschule has a long history in Germany; it has always been advocated by the leaders of progressive politics and thoughtful educators. When last agitated in the eighties, Prof. Rein and Mr. J. Tews, now the doyen of the elementary school teachers, were associated with the movement as they now are with its revival. The principle underlying the system of the Einheitsschule is that all children between the ages of 6 and 12 shall have a common educational foundation to be followed by educational opportunities thereafter suited to their abilities. This implies the elimination of the Vorschule, or special fee-paying school, which prepares pupils from the age of 6 until their entrance into the secondary school at about the age of 9 and which is a distinctly class school. The further implication of the Einheitsschule is the postponement of the beginning of secondary education to 12, a change that has much to commend it on grounds other than the provision of democratic opportunities, and is at least a better age at which a correct choice of a course and a career can be made than 9.¹

A new stimulus was given to the movement in the early days of the war, when politics was adjourned, when enthusiasm and victory had welded the Nation together as one, and when Hindenburg was claimed to be superior to Hannibal and the captain of the L^{ynden} to Leonidas. The commercial and industrial classes had, it was generally felt, proved themselves equal to the demands of the hour. The greatest inability to meet the situation had been shown by the politi-

¹ The present account is based on a study of the movement in the *Pädagogische Zeitung* between 1914-1918, when direct information ceased to be accessible. A valuable analysis of contemporary educational literature is contained in an article on *Les Projets de Réformes Scolaires en Allemagne*, in *Revue Pédagogique*, Vol. 69, pp. 280-287, September 1918; and Vol. 70, pp. 498-517, May, 1917.

cal and diplomatic leaders who had enjoyed the traditional opportunities for higher education. The demand was at once renewed for the establishment of a common school from which pupils of promise in all classes of society might be recruited to place their intellectual abilities at the service of the state and to furnish an intellectual and spiritual reserve to make up for the physical and intellectual losses incurred during the war. It was no longer a question of providing an easy road (*Bahn leicht*) for ability but an open road (*Bahn frei*).

The war changed the aspects of the problem: the need of the hour was a German national school with opportunity for all to cooperate in promoting the great aims of the German cultural state. National unity could only be advanced by a national common school, which, according to the progressives, including the Deutsche Lehrerverein and the social democrats, must be established as a free, undenominational and nationally uniform institution placing gifted children of the poorer classes on the same footing for promotion to higher education as the children of the richer classes. Cultural and social equality must be established for the working classes who were anxious to play their proper part in the development of common national aims. They desired not so much to reach the top, but that their abler members should have opportunities opened to them suited to their ability without reference to school privileges and certificates.

For the member of the working classes the question is not so much, "How can I raise my son socially through education?" as "How can I secure for my class or rather its abler members appropriate influence in the administration of the state and of the community, in industry, commerce, transport, and how can I put an end to the influences of privilege that are socially detrimental?" Selection for educational advantages must in the future be based in the opinion of the advocates of the movement not on privilege but on the common right of all classes. The proposals for the *Einheitsschule* are well summarized in a resolution passed in June, 1918, by the Association of Prussian Women Teachers, meeting at Hannover:

National unity, returning stronger than ever after the war, will demand a unified school system for all Germany. The reconstruction of the whole system will have to be made with a single compulsory elementary school as its foundation. Reasons for this are of different kinds; reasons of social justice, that every gifted child shall be able to advance to a higher education; national and economical reasons, that the state shall be able to make use of all native talent in the most suitable place, and shall be able to economize in the heavy and useless expenses which are incurred by the presence of poorly endowed scholars in the secondary schools. —

Karl Muthesius, long a leader in educational affairs, is opposed to class barriers and restrictions on intellectual development merely

because of poverty. The elementary school up to 12 must be the national school offering a common foundation for all; beyond this opportunities must be created for differentiation according to the needs of the individual and of the nation. The common school must be free from clerical control and permitted to be self-directing. He expresses his opposition to the classical tradition in days when German culture is fully developed to furnish a sound basis for education. Prof. Rein, in a work by Fr. Thimme,¹ in which are collected the opinions of leading Germans on the subject under discussion, declares himself most emphatically, as might be expected, in favor of the common school, whose establishment would make a real and effectual contribution to the development of national feeling in the hearts of all children. Such an organization would give inner unity to the whole system of moral culture in Germany.

Dr. Kerschensteiner² approaches the whole question of reform from a broader standpoint than any other of its advocates. He not only questions the existing basis and aims of education, but seeks to bring the reform into line with the modern needs of society. The acquisition of knowledge is a secondary and subordinate end; the school's essential task is to make men capable of devotion to the cause of society and of humanity. Character, moral courage, energy, and sense of civic duty are qualities that are more vital than mere information. Contrary to prevailing thought among his countrymen he opposes the theory that the state is a separate entity existing apart from the individuals composing it. He accepts the Roman and Anglo-Saxon view that the state is an association of individuals organized to promote and protect the interests of all. In such a state the free and willing collaboration of citizens should mean the elimination of restraint and coercion.

The educational implication, according to Kerschensteiner, is that "it is essential that the school should cease to be the playground of individual ambitions and egoism, in order that it may become the home of social devotion." The aim should not be intellectual culture or knowledge for its own sake but training for human intercourse and just action. The sense of civic duty can only be called forth in a state that furnishes scope for the development of personality. "If we wish to realize the true civic spirit, we must subdue the narrow national spirit." The school must accordingly fulfil a twofold duty—it must take account of individual differences and at the same time keep in the foreground the universal element—practical conduct. Educational reform must start from these premises.

¹ Thimme, Fr. *Vom inneren Frieden des deutschen Volkes*. Leipzig, 1910.
² Deutsche Schulerziehung in Krieg und Frieden. Berlin, 1916. Kandel, Jessie D. Liberal Tendencies in German Education. *Educational Review*, vol. 87, May, 1919. Pp. 300 ff.

The state, says Kerschensteiner, must guarantee the right of every child to an education suited to his ability. He combats all the arguments of opponents of this movement—overcrowding of secondary schools, difficulty of selection, lowering of standards, increase of the intellectual proletariat, and the danger of social conflicts. The Einheitsschule should, therefore, be an educational institution for all up to the age of 22 or 24, with selection all along the line according to individual differences. Unlike Rein, Kerschensteiner does not desire to keep all children together as long as possible but would begin to differentiate as soon as individual bent appears. For such a system flexibility and elasticity are indispensable; bureaucratic control and uniformity are dangerous. Selection might begin at as early an age as nine, when those who show intellectual aptitude may be transferred to secondary schools. For those who remain in the elementary school variety may be afforded by a departmental system. There should be transfers back and forth between schools and departments to give the individual every opportunity for realizing himself.

But whether a child remains in an elementary school or goes on to a secondary or vocational school, the fundamental task of education continues to be the preparation of citizens; the civic spirit must saturate the whole of education; not the emphasis on nationalism or on German language and literature, but the sovereign idea of preparation of all for society, can successfully promote the desired end. Education is a State function, and since the State has claims superior to those of smaller groups and societies, it should have the right to arbitrate and decide between conflicting interests, without, however, ignoring particular characteristics. Centralization that is too strict will stifle local effort and individual initiative; competition and rivalry are essential to life and progress.

Opposition to these claims was immediately aroused and came from the secondary schools, teachers of traditional subjects, school inspectors, administrative officials, and the clerical and conservative elements in politics. The secondary-school teachers in general feared overcrowding of their schools. The specialists were alarmed at the thought of the postponement of the beginning of secondary education from the age of 9 to 12 and the consequent lowering of standards. The inspectors and administrative official produced arguments against a radical change based on considerations of the good of the lower classes; higher education would only lead to unrest and discontent, to dissatisfaction with the social position of parents, and ambitions for higher positions that are limited in number; pupils from poorer homes and humbler environments do not enjoy the same advantages and opportunities that are possessed by the children of the upper classes—a condition that in itself might be fraught with danger consequent on the sudden transfer from a humble to a higher status.

In any case the work of the elementary schools furnishes no criterion for the selection of pupils for advancement to higher education, so that early selection would be surrounded with risk for the aspiring pupil, while no account would be taken of or provision made for late development. It would also be unjust to the elementary school teachers to deprive them of the pick of their product and the promotion of gifted pupils would mean the withdrawal of an ever-present incentive to the less well endowed. If the views of the radicals were realized and the selection of able pupils for advancement to secondary schools were made by the schools, the rights of parents would be outraged; at the most all that the schools should do would be to advise parents and allow them to act if they choose. The fear was also expressed by no less an authority than Rudolf Eucken that the realization of the common-school proposal would endanger traditional values in school, lower standards, compromise the precious things of German culture, and in the last analysis lead to the establishment of private schools and the perpetuation of a social class to preserve these heritages. Curt Fritzsche,¹ in a work on the Einheitsschule, claims to see the purport of the whole movement in the reception accorded at the Kiel congress of 1914 to the declaration of two French delegates that it represented the international ideal common to all Europe—clearly the aims of the movement are internationalism, democratization, radicalism, antireligious secularization, egoism, and social feuds.

Finally, Ferdinand J. Schmidt, professor of education at the University of Berlin, attacks the movement in an article in Preussische Jahrbücher, October, 1916. He charges the reformers with basing their agitation on political prejudices and class interests. The proposal to establish an extended unified school system, with six years of elementary education, three years of intermediate and three of secondary, without distinction for all would lower the standard to meet the needs of the poorest intellect; it would tend to a reduction of the elementary school subjects, and, by consequence, would lower the standards of the secondary schools. Foreign languages would be begun too late, and the boy going out into the world at the age of 15 would have studied French or English for only one year; ultimately languages would disappear entirely from the intermediate stage and with them the most effectual instrument for broadening the mind would be gone. The reformers are the dupes of a pedagogic materialism which would be disastrous to the nation in diverting the aim of education from its true goal—moral culture. Emphasis would then only be placed on developing those qualities and those abilities that would yield most profit.

¹ Fritzsche, C. *Die Einheitsschule*, in *Bibliothek für Volks- und Weltwirtschaft*, No. 21, Dresden, 1916.

This is the American method in education with all its dangers. The reform would not result in social equality; class distinctions continue even in countries that have a unified school system open to all. By boundlessly developing the understanding, which divides and separates, by releasing, without check or hindrance, the intellectual abilities of individuals, by freeing them from that wholesome and indispensable discipline of social morality, they are bringing about, with the best intentions in the world, the overthrow and dismemberment of national unity.

Early in 1916 the subject came within the realm of practical politics when the educational estimates for 1916-17 were brought up for debate in the Prussian House of Representatives (*Abgeordnetenhaus*). The Social Democrats and the Progressive Volkspartei came forward with a demand for the abolition of the Vorschule and the throwing open of opportunities for ability in whatever grade of society it might appear. The Vorschule is merely a school for those privileged by class, who made no other use of their educational opportunity than to advance as far as the Einjährigenzeugnis. If the principle of the Einheitsschule were adopted the best pupils would pass on completion of their elementary school course to the secondary school and in five or six years obtain the Reifezeugnis or certificate of maturity that would admit them to the universities. Both proposals met with opposition from the conservatives and the clericals who feared that the common-school movement would involve secularization. They were prepared to grant one concession that the transfer of pupils from the elementary to the secondary schools should be made as easy as that from the Vorschule. On behalf of the Government the minister of education admitted the need of establishing facilities for transferring able pupils from the elementary to the secondary schools and suggested the organization of a Mittelschule for this purpose. He referred to an experiment that had already been conducted in Berlin whereby pupils from elementary schools were transferred to the Quarta class or third year of the Realschule and in four years attained to the Einjährigenzeugnis. Such pupils could then move on to the Oberrealschule and at 16 or 20 be ready to pass on to the universities.

In the course of 1916 announcements appeared in the press that the ministry of education was preparing regulations to enable fit and selected pupils, after three years in an elementary school, to be transferred without further examination to a secondary school, thus enjoying practically the same privilege as the pupils of the Vorschule, with the difference that, if found deficient, they could be returned to the elementary grades. This proposal met with a storm of opposition; it was feared that the secondary schools would be invaded and that the teachers and principals of these schools would not have the power to turn pupils back to the elementary schools. The result was

that the ministry denied that it was even considering such a suggestion, and stated that it was merely planning to codify the regulations for the entrance examinations to secondary schools which had remained unchanged since 1837. When the new regulations were issued in August, it was found that they benefitted the Voorschule rather than the elementary schools.

The question of the Einheitsschule again came up in the course of the debate on the estimates for 1917-18 and the Government was then compelled to act. The position of the minister of education showed clearly that the ground had been shifted. From the consideration of the Einheitsschule and of plans for facilitating the transition from the elementary to the secondary school, the problem had been narrowed down to that of selecting gifted elementary school pupils for advancement to higher education. The minister announced that he had early in 1917 addressed the following questions to all district inspectors:

- (a) In what elementary school organizations can a good pupil pass into sexta of a secondary school without necessitating special arrangements or alterations in the school program?
- (b) If such organizations do not exist, what changes would have to be made in the program to render these transfers possible?
- (c) Can such changes be made without disadvantage to the other students? If not, suggestions should be made for special arrangements to meet the needs of the gifted pupil.

It was announced that an experiment was being conducted by the Government at Königsberg and plans were in progress for dealing with the needs of gifted children in Berlin, Frankfort, Breslau, Mannheim, and Hamburg.

The new movement for the selection of gifted and exceptional children seems to have had the effect of checking completely any further demands for the Einheitsschule. In the school systems to which reference is made above Begabteschulen have been or are in process of being established, and it is not improbable that this compromise will be accepted by both sides. Nowhere has a common school been put into operation, and teachers' associations appear to have been active in promoting the new experiments, which are limited to facilitating access to middle and secondary schools to gifted and exceptional (Begabten and Hochbegabten) pupils) in elementary schools.

In Berlin such an experiment was introduced on the suggestion of Geheimer Justizrat Cassel, a member of the Progressive Volkspartei, who urged, in the Prussian Abgeordnetenhaus, in 1916, the establishment of facilities in each province to enable pupils on finishing the elementary schools to continue to a higher school and reach the Reifezeugnis or maturity certificate in five or six years. Such a plan, he stated, would be of advantage to children of poor parents in larger

cities as well as to children in small towns and rural areas who could enjoy the blessings of home influences up to 14. Dr. Reiman, the director of education for Berlin, adopted the suggestion and the Begabtenschule was established in 1917 for the admission of exceptional and studious pupils who have completed the first seven years of the elementary school course. The work of the Begabtenschule begins with that of Untertertia of a secondary school; during the first year the pupils are under probation and, if they fail to meet the standards, may be discharged, that is, at the age at which they would ordinarily have reached the close of the compulsory attendance period. After two years, that is after Untersekunda, a choice is open between the course of a gymnasium or of a realgymnasium. The schools do not grant the privilege of one year military service, but after six years lead to the maturity certificate which admits to the university. The Begabtenschule is open to able pupils of all classes; fees are remitted for poor pupils, and books and, in case of need, maintenance grants up to 300M (\$75) a year are granted. The pupils must be recommended by their schools and are selected on the basis of psychological intelligence tests. The first tests were conducted by W. Moede and C. Piorkowski, psychologists who had met with success in selecting motor transport drivers for the army by tests which were used in all sections of this branch of the service. This selection is based on tests of attention and concentration, memory, combinations, wealth of ideas, judgment, attention, and observation. The authors of these tests declare that "reviewing the precise results of the analytical and systematic tests, the professional psychologist can not refuse to accept the responsibility for his decisions based on good scientific principles." Dr. Reimann plans to test pupils with artistic or technical bent and select them at 13 or 14 for higher trade schools to train as painters, jewelers, designers, embroiderers, cabinetmakers, lithographers, and other crafts. Dr. Rebhuhn has prepared an observation sheet which was presented by the Association for Exact Pedagogy to the city school board to be used by teachers as soon as pupils commence to show marked ability and to serve as a record from the second year up.

A similar plan was inaugurated at Leipzig for boys, and provision will be made for girls. Special classes were established at a Reform School and an Oberrealschule, closely coordinated with the elementary schools. The course begins in Untertertia with intensive study of French for three quarters of a year, when English or Latin is taken up. After another year the pupils are ready to take their place in the normal class of the school (Untersekunda). Tuition, books, and maintenance allowances are granted in case of need. Since the number of selected pupils is restricted to 20 each year, they are the very exceptional only (*hervorragend Begabten*). In order not to flood the academic and professional careers similar experiments will

be attempted in other schools, e. g., school of commerce, technical school, and trade schools.

A somewhat different plan has been adopted at Hamburg, where it was originally intended to establish a transition or special class to coordinate the elementary secondary schools. In place of this, owing to the insistence of the teachers and the House of Burgesses, a new type of school is organized that avoids such half measures. At 10 years of age: that is, on completing the fourth school year, pupils are specially selected for the new schools, of which 22 have been established (14 for boys and 8 for girls), to provide either a four-year German course or a five-year course with foreign languages. These schools are similar to the Prussian middle schools and carry the privilege of admission to certain higher trade schools and to the State examination for the one-year military privilege. The pupil who completes the course of such schools can by way of the Oberrealschule or the Realgymnasium pass on to the universities.

The selection of the gifted pupils is based partly on the psychological observations by the teachers and psychological tests by an expert, for both of which Dr. W. Stern, of the Psychological Institute, is responsible. The psychological observations are recorded in a specially prepared folder indicating the home conditions and school record of the pupil, his adaptability, attentiveness, susceptibility to fatigue, powers of observation and comprehension, memory, imagination, thought, language, industry, disposition and will power, special interests, and abilities. The psychological tests include the logical arrangements of ideas, explanation of concepts, completion test, building of sentence on the basis of keywords, the derivation of the moral of a story, the discovery of logical absurdities, the finding of a legend for a series of pictures, and test of attentiveness. Stern claims that the cooperation of the teachers makes the Hamburg system superior to the Berlin plan of selecting on the basis of tests alone; it should also be mentioned that the selection in Hamburg is under the supervision of a committee of the superintendent, inspectors, principals, teachers, and psychologists. For pupils who develop at a later stage than those for whom these arrangements are made transition classes have been established in two Realschulen in which after one year they can pass on to the last year of the school and qualify for the one-year military privilege.

Breslau has established special classes for boys and girls of great ability (*Hochbegabten*), selected at about the age of 12 by a psychological expert on the basis of intelligence tests similar to those used in Hamburg. Pupils who succeed in these schools will be encouraged by the city to proceed along suitable lines. The city will look after the education of selected pupils, who could thus be under the observa-

tion of the psychologist until they pass into their chosen vocation. Facilities have been instituted in Charlottenburg to enable gifted pupils to advance more rapidly in the elementary schools and complete the work of a middle school. At Frankfort gifted pupils, on leaving the elementary schools, may be prepared in one year to enter Untersekunda of an Oberrealschule, and in four years to attain the *Reifezeugnis*. The Mannheim system is already well known in this country.¹

The experiment is thus confined to the larger towns, and complaints are already heard that the state should take over the further development of such plans to bring them within the reach of all. In the meantime critics even of this precipitate of the more ambitious and more democratic movement for the Einheitsschule are not wanting. There are those who express concern lest the gifted pupils become spoilt and conceited; that selection in itself would set up class distinctions; that school ability is not necessarily a guarantee of ability in after life; that pupils should not be selected on the basis of school marks, but on the basis of character, pronounced bent, and moral force. Further, the plans involve the danger of robbing the lower classes of their intelligent members, of depriving industry of its abler workmen, and of overcrowding academic and professional careers. Finally, *faute de mieux*, psychological tests are not yet sufficiently developed to serve as a basis of sound and scientific diagnosis, and are inadequate until they have found a more extensive place in the schools. It is clear that the mind of the German reactionary follows the same kind of logic in domestic as in foreign affairs.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The movement for the common school, in some of its aspects, involved the reconstruction of the secondary school or at least the organization of a new type based entirely on a purely nationalistic foundation and open to all without distinction. This agitation was reenforced from another direction. The successes at the front were felt to be due to the excellent technical preparation given in some schools and the continued collaboration of the leaders in the field of the applied sciences. At the same time the megalomania of the early period manifested itself not merely in a feeling of physical superiority but in a sense of moral and intellectual self-sufficiency that needed no reinforcement from external sources. There was still a third point from which the traditional curricula were sub-

¹ See Auxiliary Schools of Germany. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1907, No. 3.

See especially Friedel, V. H. *The German School as a War Nursery*. London, 1918. This is a translation of a French work carefully analysing German thought on education as it appeared in the daily press.

jected to criticism—their failure to give a real preparation for the needs of modern life. The classical gymnasium in particular was attacked as an anachronism to be swept away as soon as possible and to be replaced by a genuine German nationalistic school adapted to the needs of to-day. To devote time to subjects that do not "function" or pay is a gross mistake. The schools should teach things and not words, realities and not tradition. Business men, practical politicians, and nationalistic educators found themselves united in a campaign to secure a school that would bring up German citizens in a pure German way and that would make the German civic spirit the core of the curriculum.

The charge is made that the so-called reforms resulting from the Emperor's conferences in 1890 and 1900 did not result in a modification of the gymnasium, where Latin and Greek still form the core of the curriculum with an emphasis on the grammatical and philosophical elements. The pseudo-humanistic ideal of teaching nothing that is directly useful for life still animates such schools, which continue as ever to be the homes of conservatism. "*Deutschtum*," German *Kultur*, must be the center around which secondary school studies should revolve. The classics may have been the roots of German *Kultur*, but Germany now possesses the fruit and flower in her own culture and that alone. So far as antiquities are concerned, a knowledge of them can in these days be readily obtained through photographs, reproductions and models, and translations without the waste of time involved in studying grammar and rules. As for the disciplinary value of such studies, much better results can be obtained from mathematics.

The same attitude was manifested on the question of the study of modern foreign languages, although the material loss that might be involved in their total abandonment made the discussion of the subject a little more wary. It was argued that, since the enemy had evidently not taken the trouble to understand Germany, it was waste of time for Germans to attempt to study their languages. Statistically it was proved that next to the English language German was the vernacular of the world and after the war English would inevitably be ousted. It was even proposed, and a motion to this effect in the Prussian Upper House met with the support of all the university representatives, that the languages of Germany's eastern allies should be introduced into the schools. Flemish was added to the list subsequently. The more cautious were not so ready to see English and French ousted, and, while admitting that Germany could gain nothing culturally from the enemy languages, suggested that commercially it might still be found profitable to retain English and add Russian and Spanish as the languages necessary for Germany's future commercial development. The one aim of the schools to-day

should not be formal training but an education for life founded in moral idealism; there must be, as the Emperor had urged in 1890 and 1900, "a more decided nationalization of secondary education" to develop citizens of a German state.

The blatancy of these claims was not allowed to pass unchallenged. The advocates of the classics protested strongly¹. Did the opponents wish to make Americans of the youth of the country "to dry up their dreams, and to turn boys of 15 into makers of machinery, into dentists, or into surgeons"? The German moral and intellectual forces of which all were proud were founded, it was claimed, on the ancient cultures. The particular character of German culture was derived from the cult of the classics. One secondary schoolmaster sums up the arguments of the classicists in the statement that "Three persons have become one in us, the Greek, the Christian, and the German"—hence each must have its place in the development of youth. Nor were there lacking students of modern foreign languages to insist on their retention, but even here it was suggested that such languages and literatures be studied only in so far as they can contribute toward a clearer comprehension of German national culture. The attitude of the ministry of education on this subject is indicated in an instruction of March 20, 1915, which permitted the employment in secondary schools of Germans expelled from France and England to teach the languages of those countries, even if they did not possess the prescribed qualifications or previous teaching experience.

It is obvious that no matter what the opinion on any subject might be, all who entered into the discussion of educational values were unanimous in accepting the nationalistic aim. This aim was stimulated by the Government in various ways, direct and indirect. Teachers were urged immediately on the outbreak of the war to turn the attention of their students to the study of the war events and patriotic endeavor. The ministry of war with the support of the ministry of education and other ministries interested in education urged the organization in schools and elsewhere of battalions and companies of boys of 15 or 16 (*Jugendcompagnien, Jungmannen, Jungmannschaften*) for physical training and instruction as a preparation for military training. Militarism in these organizations was at first disavowed, but it began progressively to enter and by 1917 no secret was made of their primary purpose.¹

The direct method for the inculcation of patriotism, national pride, and devotion to the dynasty was adopted by the ministry of education when on September 2, 1915, it issued its "New Organization of the History Syllabus in Higher Schools of Prussia." It appeared that the history syllabus for the secondary schools had

¹ See Friedel, op. cit., Chap. II.

grown too cumbersome, so that it was impossible to handle it satisfactorily in the present overcrowded condition of the curriculum. "Since it is just the period from 1861 to the present that for us Prussians and Germans surpasses in importance everything else that has happened in the history of the world, the earlier periods must be treated much more briefly and comprehensively, so that the history of the past 50 years can be dealt with in detail." Under existing arrangements the modern period is not taken up until Untersekunda. The new regulations require Prussian-German history to be begun in Sexta and continued concentrically so that pupils will acquire a mastery of national history. The emphasis throughout it is urged should be on the outstanding character of the Hohenzollerns, more especially from the time of the Great Elector down to the present. Ancient and medieval history are retained but teachers are advised to dwell only on those movements whose influence has been more or less continuous. Briefly analyzed the suggested syllabus is as follows:

Sexta—Stories from recent history. Quinta—Outline of Prussian-German history. Quarta—Ancient and medieval history to about 476 A. D. Untertertia—History of Germany In Middle Ages to the middle of the seventeenth century. Obertertia—Amplifications of the outline given in Quinta at least to 1870 or even the present day. Untersekunda—Review ancient history, begin German history, if not already begun in the previous class, and deal in detail with selected parts since 1870. Obersekunda—Close the ancient period and go on to the thirteenth century. Unterprima—German history up to Frederick the Great. Prima—German history from 1786 to the present.

Some flexibility was permitted to the teachers in the organization of the work. The experiment was to be inaugurated at Easter, 1916. By a prophetic anticipation the reports on this experiment in molding patriots to Hohenzollern standard were to be made in October, 1918.

TRAINING OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS.

The system of training of teachers for secondary schools has been somewhat modified by new regulations issued in June, 1917. The rules for the admission of candidates remain unchanged. At the close of the necessary period of university study of four years candidates are required to undergo a general examination (*Wissenschaftliche Prüfung*). This examination is conducted by a special board (*Wissenschaftliches Prüfungsamt*), which includes university instructors and schoolmen. The paper in general knowledge is abolished, but every candidate is examined in philosophy with special reference to education, including psychology, logic, and ethics related in particular to child life. Familiarity must be shown with

the works of the leading writers in the special branch of philosophy bearing on education and with its place in the history of philosophy. This general examination is followed by examinations in the special fields selected by the candidate from the following subjects: Christian theology, German, Latin, Greek, Hebrew (only as a minor), French, English, history, geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, and zoology. Of these subjects two, instead of one as hitherto, must be taken as majors and one as a minor. An innovation is the addition of a large number of supplementary subjects that may be substituted for the minor. These include philosophical propædeutics, pedagogy, applied mathematics, mineralogy and geology, classical archaeology, history of art in the Middle Ages and modern times, comparative languages, Polish, Danish, Russian, Spanish, Italian, Turkish, drawing, singing, and gymnastics.

Candidates who pass the requirements in this qualifying examination must undergo two years of practical training. Six to eight probationers are sent to a selected school for one year at a time, so that at the end of the period each candidate becomes thoroughly familiar with two schools. During each of the two years regular sessions must be conducted for the study of education by the director of the school to which candidates are assigned. At least two hours a week must be given to history of education, principles of teaching, psychology, and ethics. The probationary period of two years is closed by a second examination, the pedagogical examination (*Pädagogische Prüfung*), conducted by a pedagogical examination board (*Pädagogisches Prüfungsaamt*), which consists of a provincial school councillor, the director, and faculty of the schools in which the candidates have been trained. The subjects of the professional examination include the history of education and principles of teaching.

It is claimed that the new regulations represent an advance in separating the professional from the general examination. The regulations are based on the view that a true insight can best be obtained into the problems, principles, and philosophy of education during the two years of practice. It is objected, however, that an intellectual appreciation of the problems involved could be better imparted in university courses, and the theory can then be subjected to the criticism of practice. The regulations, since they do not require attendance at lectures on education at the university as they do in the case of general subjects, depreciate the place of education as a science and deal a blow at the development of the subject in the universities. The new system, which came into force on April 1, 1918, involves the danger of reducing education and teaching to the level of a handicraft. It is suggested by critics that candidates should as a condition of admission to the examination be required to

have attended courses and seminars in education at the universities and psychological institutes, that psychology take the place of philosophy in the general examination, and that in the professional examination questions be given in the oral test on the organization, history, and psychology of at least one school subject, on moral instruction, and on psychological tests and measurements.

THE NEW SPIRIT IN SCHOOLS.

The tendencies that are already apparent since the overthrow of the monarchical government in Prussia are indicated in a number of decrees and circulars that have been issued by the new minister of education. Thus the *Kölnische Volkszeitung* of November 16, 1918, printed the following decree:

1. Wherever the teaching of history and other subjects have been used to arouse national hatred it must be discontinued in the future; it must be replaced by an adequate presentation of subjects dealing with natural history. All biased and false teachings about the war and its causes are to be avoided.
2. All books which glorify the war are to be removed from the school libraries.
3. At no time should the teachers pass adverse or false remarks about the causes and consequences of the revolution or the present Government which are apt to debase in the eyes of the school youth the achievements of the revolution.
4. School authorities and teachers must avoid in their intercourse with the school youth any matter that tends to arouse a counter-revolution (especially in the Lowlands), as such action is at the present moment greatly endangered by the possibility of a civil war.
5. Pending the decree about the separation of state and church, the children of dissidents and persons holding religious views for whom no provision has been made in the present curriculum must be excused from the lessons in religion without any further proof, on the request of persons responsible for their education.

This was followed at the close of November by the Socialist program of education issued by the Socialist Kultus-Minister, Herr Konrad Häniisch, of which a translation appeared in the *Times* (London) Educational Supplement, December 19, 1918:

A. GENERAL.

1. The separation of church and state has been settled in principle.
2. Religion has ceased to be an examination subject, and the introduction of unsectarian moral teaching is being prepared.
3. Supervision of schools by the local clergy and participation of the clergy in the district inspections are abolished.
4. Mixed education of boys and girls has already been introduced in some schools.
5. Teachers and scholars receive powers of self-government.
6. All chauvinism is banished from the instruction, and especially from the instruction in history.
7. Prussia will propose the assembly of a school conference for the whole Empire.
8. The uniform school (Eduardtschule) is secured, and the abolition of all class schools will be begun immediately.
9. The office of rector will be deprived of its autocratic character and built up upon a collegiate basis.
10. The school authorities are instructed to promote among

teachers' unions and at official conferences discussions of educational and cultural questions of policy in the spirit of the new age. 11. The ministry of education will include as representatives of the Socialist Party two ministers, one undersecretary, one principal adviser, and two assistant advisers. 12. Touch will be kept with champions of the new movement throughout the whole country, and a list will be made of suitable candidates for freshening the body of officials and teachers. 13. The leaving examination from the secondary schools will be transformed and the number of examinations will be reduced. 14. The Prussian ministry of education claims a share of the confiscated royal castles for the purposes of national education—as training schools, boarding schools, model seminaries, museums, and national high schools. 15. Physical culture has been deprived of its military character.

B. TEACHERS.

16. No teacher may in future be compelled to give religious education. 17. It has been proposed to the ministry of war that all teachers shall be released immediately from their military obligations. 18. Work for the willing! Immediate provision of employment for teachers who return from the field by reducing the size of classes, filling of all vacant posts, and establishment of special courses. 19. The amnesty will be applied to all teachers who have received disciplinary punishment. 20. Teachers who have been punished for their political or religious convictions are to be reinstated. 21. The teachers will have representatives in the Government and in the school administration. The socialist teacher Menzel has been appointed principal adviser in the ministry of education. 22. Tried teachers will be appointed to local inspectorships of schools without special examinations.

C. UNIVERSITIES.

23. Prominent representatives of scientific socialism and of other tendencies which have hitherto been systematically excluded are to be appointed to university chairs. 24. A system of national high schools is to be built up on large lines and to be placed in organic connection with existing schools and high schools. 25. The reorganization of the technical high schools will be effected in close connection with the universities. 26. The social, legal, and financial position of the assistant teachers in universities (privatdozenten) is to be raised. 27. Freedom of doctrine in the universities is to be rid of its last fetters. 28. Professorial chairs and research institutes for sociology will be established.

D. GENERAL CULTURE.

29. The theaters will be put under the ministry of education. The theater censorship has been abolished. 30. Opportunity for work, and relief where necessary, will be given to unemployed artists and writers on their return from the field. 31. The system of appointments will be reformed in association with the organizations of artists of every school. 32. The royal theaters will become national theaters, and the court orchestras will become national orchestras.

SEPARATION OF CHURCH AND STATE.

The appearance of this program created considerable alarm throughout the country among those who feared not only separation of the church and school but the elimination of religious instruction.

In response to numerous telegraphic and letter inquiries Herr Konrad

Hänisch addressed to the *Rheinische Zeitung* in Cologne the following telegram:

Repudiate most vigorously the baseless rumors that the Kultus ministry intends immediately and by a mere decree to bring about unawares and with a single stroke the separation of church and state. The carrying out of this program is, to be sure, in line with our policy, and the initial steps are already in the course of preparation. But it is to be understood, and the members of the ministry are unanimous, that representatives of the church will also be invited to the preliminary work which involves financial, judicial, and, in general, political questions. Preliminary discussions with representative clergymen and instructors of canonical law have already been initiated. Efforts have been made to guarantee the interests and spare the feelings of the church circles in Prussia. No one will be stirred. Irrespective of all other considerations, such action would be in opposition to the general political situation. The Prussian ministry of education conducts no narrow provincial, but state policies. There is no reason for apprehension on the part of the Catholic population.

An official statement of our ministry regarding these questions will be issued in the nearest future.—[*Frankfurter Zeitung*, Nov. 26, 1918.]

Several points seem to stand out as indicating the future development of Prussian education. These are the secularization of the schools, the introduction of professional inspection in place of clerical supervision, increased participation of the teachers in educational administration, and the establishment in some form or other of the Einheitschule. Students who are interested will find it profitable to compare the tendencies here outlined with the proposals of the teachers laid before the Parliament at Frankfort in 1848.